

THE
PHILADELPHIA REGISTER,
AND
NATIONAL RECORDER.

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Internal Improvement.

[FROM THE UNION.]

ROADS AND CANALS.

Many of our readers have been inclined on this subject to use the homely saying of "*great cry and little wool*," &c.—meaning that while our legislators, and those wishing to become popular, were *talking* a great deal about internal improvement, very little was actually *doing*. In this they are mistaken: probably more is really doing in Pennsylvania than in any other state, not excepting perhaps even New York and her great canal. The improvements making in the navigation of the Schuylkill, and the Lehigh are prodigious; and, besides other benefits, we shall feel their effects *next winter* in the reduced price of our fuel. Turnpike roads are extending themselves through every part of our state. Besides others of less extent, there are, 1. The Milford and Owego turnpike road of nearly 100 miles in length, in great forwardness, and will be finished, it is said, certainly, in less than two years. 2. The Berwick and Newtown road in much the same state, and to be finished in about the same time. 3. The Wilkesbarre and Chenango Point road through Montrose, may be placed on the same footing. 4. The great Pittsburgh road by the southern route, has advanced with success, and will also be finished in two years. In regard to the northern route, we are not informed. 5. The Pittsburgh and Erie road, leading through Mercer, Meadville, &c. has been begun, and it is said will not be delayed. To this road the attention of Congress has been called. In addition to all these, it seems from the following letter, that the great Belt road, if it may be so called, passing diagonally across the whole extent of the state, from Philadelphia in the southeast, to Erie in the northwest, and binding it as it were by a zone, is likely to advance, and be completed. It is not in one section, or by one company, but seve-

ral. From this place to Northumberland through Reading, it is nearly if not quite complete. From Northumberland to the mouth of Anderson's creek through Aaronsburgh, Bellefonte, Philipsburgh, &c. is another section, towards the completion of which the state has subscribed 75,000 dollars, and which will be set in motion as soon as it is known that the western section will certainly be made. That section, is from the mouth of Anderson's creek through *Franklin, Meadville, and Waterford to Erie*—and the required certainty of its being made, has been given—so that we may reasonably expect to see this great and important road completed in no very great length of time. The great benefit that it will be to our city, and the great value that it will give to property in the interior and western parts of our state, are obvious.

Extract of a Letter, dated Meadville, January 22, 1819.

"Our part of the country seems to be rapidly advancing. In addition to the benefits we are likely to derive from our salt springs lately discovered, we shall probably derive not much less from the turnpike roads, the completion of which is now certain. The whole of our stock for the road from Erie to Anderson's creek, was subscribed some time ago. In addition to the subscription of individuals, the state has subscribed 125,000 dollars. The road from Erie to Waterford, 15 miles, was made some years ago under a separate company. Contracts have been given out for making this year 20 miles between Waterford and Franklin—and it is not doubted that the residue between those two places will be completed the next year. Major Herriott has taken the whole of the road from Franklin to Anderson's creek to be completed in four years, say 20 miles a year. So that in two years we shall have the road complete from Erie to Franklin, say 63 miles, and in four years to Anderson's creek—the whole distance above 140 miles.

"Of the road from Pittsburgh to this place,

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the Mercer managers will make 10 miles near Meadville, and 5 miles in addition to 5 miles already made near Mercer, during the present year. What will be done in the other sections this year, we do not precisely know; but we are assured that it will progress with as much speed as possible. In a few years it will be a fashionable tour from your city and Baltimore, by either of the roads I have been speaking of to this place, and hence to Erie—up the lake to Detroit—or down it to the falls of Niagara; across lake Ontario; down the St. Lawrence to Montreal and Quebec—and home by Champlain and the Hudson. It can be performed in a very short time, and will be a most delightful tour.”

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

[A very interesting Report has been made to the House of Representatives, on the Weights and Measures of the United States, by Mr. Lowndes, chairman of a select committee appointed for that purpose. The following extracts will show the industry and attention of the committee in collecting information, and the final result of their deliberations. After an able discussion of the advantages of other plans, they deem it most advisable to make very little change of system, but to adopt measures to secure the permanence and uniformity of that now generally in use. At the conclusion, they move several resolutions, necessary to carry into effect the proposals contained in the report.]

The measures used in surveying the lands of the United States, are all compared, as the committee have understood, with a brass chain, made under the direction of Mr. Rittenhouse. But, in general, the officers of the United States employ the weights and measures which are established, or rather used, in the districts in which they live. The changes which have been made by custom in the weights and measures of the United States, are such as add to their simplicity. We have discontinued the use of many English weights and measures, and have introduced no new ones.

Of the weights, we use the pound and ounce avoirdupois, and the troy grain, with the pennyweight; and for medicine, the scruple and drachm. The troy pound and ounce have been discontinued.

Of lineal measures, we use generally the inch, foot, yard, fathom, perch or pole, furlong, mile and league.

We have discontinued the barleycorn, palm, link, nail, span, cubit, and pace.

For dry measure of capacity, we use the pint, quart, gallon, peck, and bushel.

We have discontinued the pottle, loom, quarter, weigh, and last.

Of liquid measures, we have discontinued the ale and beer measure, and apply to all liquids the English wine measure.

We use the gill, pint, quart, and gallon. We have discontinued the rundlet.

Of superficial measure, we use the inch, foot, yard, pole, rood, and acre; and have discontinued the pace.

For the measurement of firewood, we use the English cord; and for coal, the common bushel heaped. We have discontinued the chaldron.

The committee are unanimous in the opinion, that this subject ought not to be left to uncertain usages, or to the various laws of particular states. They will not enlarge upon its importance. Commercial credit is well secured in every part of this country, by enforcing the punctual performance of contracts. But commerce itself could hardly subsist, unless some security were given (beside the judgment of the purchaser) that the article which he buys is of the quantity which the seller describes; that the weight or measure which is employed, is fair. The duty of providing this security has been devolved, by the constitution, upon Congress; and the committee express, with great respect, their opinion, that it should not be neglected any longer.

It has been frequently proposed in foreign countries, “to employ, as the fundamental unit of all measures, a type which should be taken from nature;” and be exempt from the alterations to which arbitrary standards are exposed. In execution of this plan, the government of France has employed, as the base of its system of measures, that arc of the terrestrial meridian passing through Paris, which is contained between the equator and the north pole. It has adopted the ten millionth part of this arc as the unit of measures of length, calling it the metre, and deducing from it all its other measures and weights. It has taken, as the unit of superficial measures, the arc, or square of ten metres; as the unit of measures of capacity, both for liquids and dry goods, the litre, or cube of the tenth part of the metre; as the unit of measures particularly intended for firewood, the stère, or cubic me-

tre; and as the unit of weight, the gramme, or absolute weight of a volume of pure water, in its state of greatest density, equal to the cube of the hundredth part of the metre.

The standard metre is placed on a rod of platina, and a killogramme of platina, (equal to a thousand grammes) has been declared by a law of 1800, to be the standard of weight.

The government of the Netherlands has lately adopted the French system, without material modification.

The establishment of a standard of weights and measures, which should be deduced from an invariable type in nature, has been more than once discussed in the English parliament; but nothing definitive has yet been done in it.

In the United States, although the matter has been recommended to Congress by successive Presidents, no progress has been made in determining upon a standard of weights and measures, beyond that of receiving a report from the first secretary of state, Mr. Jefferson. Mr. Jefferson considers matter by its mere extension, as furnishing nothing invariable; and its motion as the only remaining resource. He proposes the length of a metallic rod, which shall vibrate seconds of mean time at the level of the ocean, in the 45th parallel of N. latitude, as a foundation of a system of measures for the United States. The committee abstain from the free quotations which they would otherwise make from this report, on the presumption that its principal views are in the memory of the House.

They do not know that any attempt at a general reform of weights and measures has of late been made in any other country.

But the plan of obtaining an invariable standard from nature is of no easy execution. The type of such a standard should be equally accessible to all nations. This, indeed, the system is admitted to require. But the figure of the earth is irregular to observation. We do not know that gravitation is uniform in different longitudes though in the same latitude, nor that the different meridians are similar, nor even that the two hemispheres on each side of the equator are equal. If the establishment of the

same meridian be proposed, or for the pendulum the same longitude and latitude, it will follow that every country but one, must verify its standard in a foreign state. If the figure of the earth be irregular, the extent of that part of the meridional arc which is obtained by computation, must be uncertain, and even in ascertaining the part which is submitted to actual measurement, the most perfect instruments, and the highest experience, have left the accuracy of such a process in some doubt. The improvement which has been lately proposed in the use of the pendulum, seems likely to make it more sensible but not more uniform; and it is singular that respectable authorities differ by more than half an inch (59-100) as to the length of the pendulum which will vibrate seconds at the same level and at the very latitude (that of 45) which has been proposed for the regulating pendulum. If, however, on either plan a fixed proportion be established by law between the standard and a natural type, the standard itself, whose name and office imply immutability, must change with every corrected estimate of the type which is its base. The first standard of the French measures was accordingly declared to be provisional.

Whether standards derived from the natural types which have been proposed, have all the advantages which have been attributed to them, seems therefore to be questionable. And the inconveniences of change are not small. If a difference between the measures of two neighbouring towns afford opportunities for fraud, how much greater must these be, when entirely new measures are first introduced through a whole country. We have reason, from the experience of France, to think that these will be adopted slowly and imperfectly; partially in some places, and in all with the confusion which results from retaining both the old names, and the old divisions, and giving them a new and a double meaning. It is obvious in such a case, whatever benefits uniformity and system may give to posterity, that the present age must pay no scanty price for them. The difference between the weights and measures of the several provinces of France was so great, that uniformity could not have been obtained

without violent innovations. But such is not their condition in the United States.

On the whole, the committee believe it best, at least in the circumstances of this country, to adopt absolute standards, conformed to the weights and measures which are in most general use among us. If it be thought necessary to provide by law for the loss of these standards, the provision may be formed on the basis of the best experiment, and the exactest science, which the country can now command, and without change of standard, this provision may be varied whenever the advancement of science shall furnish a better process.

In pursuance of this view, they propose, that models of the yard, bushel, wine gallon, and pound, supposed to conform to those in most common use in the United States, shall be made under the direction of a commission of ——— persons, to be selected by the President of the United States, and if satisfactory to Congress, that they shall be declared the standard yard, bushel, liquid gallon, and pound of the United States.

If these standards shall be adopted for our measures, the law which will establish them will determine how greater or less measures shall be formed from them. There is no variety in the composition of these in the different states, and, in the opinion of the committee, no adequate motive for proposing a change. There will consequently be no difficulty in this regulation.

The committee propose, that the standards shall be deposited in the office of the secretary of state. These will be employed but rarely to verify the models which may be issued under the authority of the government. The law which establishes the standard, will determine the temperature at which it is to be used.

The means which may be employed for the restoration of the standards, if they should be lost or impaired, are sufficiently analogous to some of those which may be used for securing the accurate execution of the models, as well as the weights and measures in common use, to make it convenient to consider

the two subjects together. Indeed, it must be an extravagant fondness for system which would lead us to deny that the models, if proper precautions be taken to secure their fidelity, will probably furnish a sufficiently correct, as well as an easy mean for the restoration of the standards if they should be lost.

The careful observation of the proportions which the standards of measure bear to each other, and that of the relations which each of these holds to the dimensions of a quantity of pure water of a given temperature, which is equal to the weight of the standard pound, will sufficiently provide for the contingency of the loss of any number of these standards less than the whole. The committee propose, that these relations shall be ascertained and reported by the commission, whose appointment has been already suggested.

If it be thought prudent to provide for the contingency of the loss, at the same time, of all the standards and all the models, on which a just reliance may be placed, it may be done by ascertaining the relation between the standard measure of length and the pendulum, and an arc of the meridian. Which of these relations can be most safely relied on for the restoration of the standard, can be best determined when its loss shall occur. The designation of these relations by a commission may also facilitate a comparison with the measures of foreign countries. The committee do not, however, recommend the difficult and costly expedient of measuring a large arc of the meridian in this country; but the commission may ascertain the proportion between our standard and the great arc which has been measured by the French mathematicians, or the quarter of a meridional circle inferred from it. They can do this, indeed, only by a comparison with the French measures in which the result of that operation has been stated. The length of a pendulum or rod, which shall vibrate seconds of mean time, is an object of more convenient comparison, and the commission may probably think it necessary to ascertain the relation between this and our standard of length by their own observation.

The most accurate designation of the relation between the standard of length and the pendulum on an arc of the meri-

dian, cannot be expected to be of any direct service in promoting the accuracy of measures in common use. Considerable variation is less to be apprehended in the models of lineal measure than in any other. And the determination of the proportions between lineal measures, and measures of capacity, and between both these and weights, may have some effect in enabling us to detect without too difficult a process the defects of measures of capacity and possibly of weights in common use. For this purpose it would perhaps be convenient to establish not merely the cubical contents of the common measures of capacity, but to fix determinate forms for all these, and dimensions whose correctness might be ascertained in the common measures of length.—What these forms should be, it would be proper to leave to the decision of the commission, although the strength of the cylinder, its general use, and, according to the commission of the French institute, the greater exactness which may in practice be given to that figure, are strong reasons for employing it.

The designation of measures of capacity, the contents of which, if of rain water of a *convenient* temperature, would be equal in weight to a pound, or any part or multiple of it, would furnish a test which might sometimes be applied to common weights. But it will be easier to avoid considerable variation in the models of weight, than of cubic measure; and the determination of the weight of rain water, of a convenient temperature, which ought to be contained in the several measures of capacity, furnishes a security of easy employment for the fairness of such measures.

It will be necessary that models of weights and measures, exactly compared with their several standards, shall be deposited in the different states. To prevent unnecessary delay, it may be proper to allow the commission entrusted with the charge of preparing the models which are to be proposed as standards, to cause to be prepared also, a number of models for distribution. The committee think that there should be sent to each state, to be distributed as may be directed by its legislature, a number of each of these models equal to the number of members to which the state is entitled in the House of Representatives

of the United States; and that models of each standard should be deposited with the marshal of each state, and with every collector of customs throughout the United States. To enable the government to make this distribution, and to reserve the number of models which it may be proper that it should have at its disposition, the committee propose that — of each model should be provided.

COINAGE.

From the communication of the director of the mint to the secretary of the treasury, dated the 28th of December, 1818, accompanying his report to the Senate, some interesting facts on the subject of gold and silver coins are extracted.

It appears that the mint in its present situation, with the aid of a new foundry and refining furnace, which are nearly completed, coining gold without silver, would be able to prepare and strike about 35,000 pieces per week, reckoning only five working days in the week.

Making silver without gold, the weekly coinage in dollars, may be rated at about 60,000, in half dollars 85,000, and in smaller coins, 100,000 pieces respectively; and beyond this, which would be fully double the last year's coinage, the operation of the mint could not be much extended, without erecting a new building.

In order to be constantly employed, deposits, whether of gold or silver, equal at least to two weeks coinage, should always be in advance. The copper coinage is considered as continuing in constant operation, striking at least 100,000 cents per week.

On the subject of the feasibility of securing a larger coinage of gold than has been usual, Mr. Patterson observes:

“Nothing occurs to me as adequate to this effect, except increasing the value of gold relatively to that of silver, so that the ratio of the one to the other, may be somewhat greater than in any part of Europe. According to the standard in the United States, this ratio in the pure metals is as 15 to 1. In some parts of Europe, it is as 16 to 1, which I believe is at present the maximum. Though, as the coins of no one country in Europe are a legal tender in any other, gold and silver, whether in coins or bullion, become an article of commerce, and their relative value is continually varying, according to circumstances. Considering the expense of the importation of gold into the United States, I should think that our government would be justifiable in adding 10 per cent. to the present relative value of gold. This would hold out a powerful and effectual motive for the importation of gold into the United States,

and at the same time be a powerful barrier against its exportation. All the difficulties arising from the American gold coins now in circulation might be readily obviated, either by calling them in for recoinage, or suffering them to pass at the increased value."

For information respecting the gold and silver of England and France, Mr. Patterson refers to the following essay from a London paper of the 22d of April, in which, he says, the subject is treated with great perspicuity.

From a London paper of April 22d, 1818.

The large quantity of gold pieces which have lately been coined, and their almost immediate disappearance, is a subject of surprise and material concern to the people at large.

Some have ascribed this to the difference of exchange between this country and the rest of Europe; but this disappearance of the coin did not take place to any considerable degree, when the exchange was confessedly against us, and much less could the difference of exchange produce any such effect at present, when it is evidently in our favour. But, in all probability, the cause of this deficiency of gold coin in circulation lies nearer home, and consists in the proportion which has lately been established between the gold and silver coin, considered as bullion. To explain this, it is necessary to advert a little to the properties belonging to coined money.

Coin may be considered in two lights: 1st. As a sign of value: and again, (which is the most important consideration) as a deposit of equal intrinsic value, with the sum it professes to represent. The worth, as Mr. Leake observes, is the intrinsic value which makes it the measure of all other things. That the coin should possess this degree of intrinsic value, was secured by two acts of parliament; one of the 18th, and the other of the 25th of Charles II. which enact, "that every person bringing any foreign coin or bullion to the mint, to be coined, should have the same assayed and melted down, without any charge or defalcation; and for every pound troy of crown gold or sterling silver, should receive the like weight in coined money of crown or standard gold, and of sterling or standard silver; and 2d. If the bullion so brought was finer or coarser than crown gold or standard silver, so much more or less should be allowed, as it was better or worse, and without any charge of coinage, or without any undue preference in the coinage. And, to defray the charges of the mint and coinage, a duty was laid on wines, &c."

It appears by this act, "which was continued by the succeeding princes," that the seigneurage, and all other duties on coinage, were in effect abolished, or rendered ineffectual. In the time of queen Elizabeth,

and until the 43d year of her reign, 60 shillings, each weighing 4 dwts. equal to 96 grs. were cut out of a pound of silver bullion. In the 43d year of the reign of this princess, 62 shillings were cut out of a pound of silver bullion; and the weight of each shilling consequently diminished from 96 to 92.857; at which rate it has continued until the late alteration, say as 62 shillings are to 5760 grs. (the number of grains in a troy pound) so are 21 shillings to 1,950, the number of grains in 21 shillings of the old standard. Again, 1,950 grains, divided by 129.5 (the number of grains of gold in a guinea) gives for a quotient 15.059.

The proportion of standard silver to standard gold, in point of value, supposing the weights equal, is nearly as 15.059 to 1. But now, when 66 shillings are cut out of a pound of silver, and 21 of these given for a guinea, the proportion is altered; the shilling which before weighed, of standard silver, 92 grs. and 857 decimal parts, is now reduced to 87 grs. and 2.292 decimal parts, or 5½ grs. less than the old standard; in each shilling, equal to 2 farthings and 7138 decimals of a farthing, or nearly three-fourths of a penny, worse than the old standard coinage.

This defalcation of weight amounts, in 21 shillings, to 110 grains and 25 decimal parts, equal in value to 1s. 2d. and 9.189 decimal parts, or 1s. 2½d. nearly, which in large sums makes a considerable difference, being 118s. 75 decimal parts per cent. short of the old value of gold, compared with silver. This reduces the proportion which gold and silver bear to one another, from 15.059 to 14.121 to 1; or, as was before observed, nearly 6 per cent. which is the sum that might be gained, and probably is gained, by buying up the gold coin, (no matter whether guineas or sovereigns,) with the diminished silver coin, and purchasing, with the gold coin so obtained, silver bullion in France, Holland, or Germany.

If this statement (if correct,) does not account for the disappearance of the gold coin, I am at a loss to say what other cause more adequate can be assigned.

P. S. The proportion of silver to gold, in the French coin, is as follows:

The six franc piece (in silver) of Louis XV. weighs 18 dwts. 12 grains, equal to 444 grains, these multiplied by 8, produce 3,552 grs. The double Louis d'or (gold) weighs 9 dwts. 23 grains, equal in weight to 236 grains, and is estimated to be 8 six franc pieces in value. Now, 3,552 divided by 26 grains, as quotient 15.053, which is nearly in the proportion of 15 to 1, scarcely differing from the proportion of silver to gold in the former English coinage. Again, the five franc piece of Napoleon (silver) weighs 16 dwts. 2 grains, equal in weight to 386 grs. This, multiplied by 8, produces 3,088 grains. The forty franc piece of Bonaparte (gold) valued at 8 five franc pieces, weighs 8 dwts. 7 grains, equal to 199 grs. Now, 3,088 di-

vided by 199, gives 15.517 to 1, as the proportion silver bears to gold, which estimates the gold higher in proportion to silver than in the former coinage.

Let us now examine the coinages of Holland, and the proportion which gold and silver bear to one another, in the money of that country.

The three guilder piece of Holland (silver) weighs 1 oz. 14 grains, equal to 494 grains; of course, 14 guilders must weigh, or be equal to 2,305 grs. of silver. The Ruydu, or 14 guilder pieces, (gold) weighs 6 dwt. 8 grains, equal to 152 grs. Now, 2,305 divided by 152, gives 15.1665 as the proportion which silver and gold, in the Dutch coin, bear to one another.

The geometrical mean of these calculations, is 15.2451; the arithmetical mean is somewhat higher, being 15.2655. Either of these, compared with the proportions formed in the late coinage of this country, will sufficiently account for the gold coin being either exported, or melted down at home. The advantage of counterfeiting this coin is obvious, where the counterfeit might contain the same quantity of silver of the same degree of purity as the current money of the realm, and yet afford an adequate advantage to those who counterfeit it. O. C.

On the Means of improving the Poor.

[From an article in a late Quarterly Review, "*On the means of improving the people*," we have taken the following important facts and opinions, hoping that they may be useful in our own country.

From the success of the efforts which have been made for the education and improvement of the poor, in a country which is burdened by many disadvantages from which the United States are exempt, we have reason to expect the most complete fulfilment of all those plans for the promotion of industry and economy in this favoured land, which shall be conducted with vigour and perseverance.]

Taking it for granted, that the present overwhelming number of paupers in England has been created by the poor laws, the reviewers say, that the evil increased slowly during the 17th and greater part of the 18th century, because it had much to overcome in the habits and character of the English peasantry.—These habits which originated in the feudal system, led the poor when in distress to look for relief from their land-

lord. They were also much more stationary than they now are; and grew up where they were born. This created in them a kind of family pride; the son did not wish to leave behind him a worse remembrance than his father; a good name was part of his inheritance, and, in case of unavoidable misfortune, it assured him relief. A labourer would not without extreme reluctance apply for parochial aid, and nothing but extreme necessity could induce him to enter a poor-house.

Among the causes which have induced a change of habits is the great abundance of alehouses. As the establishment of inns is one of the surest proofs and accompaniments of increasing civilization, so the multiplication of alehouses is not less surely the effect and the cause of an increased depravity of manners. It may be affirmed broadly and without qualification, that every public house in the country, which is not required for the convenience of travellers, wayfarers and persons frequenting a market, is a seminary for idleness, misery and pauperism. To remove these, is one of the most important steps towards reformation. No new house should be licensed without clear proof that it would be useful to the neighbourhood. As to the unnecessary number already open, the license should not be revived when the present occupier removes or dies; one generation would then produce the desired reduction; and in every instance where habitual riot and drunkenness were suffered, or the doors kept open till an improper hour of the night, the license should uniformly be taken away. Were this regulation strictly enforced, its effects would be soon evinced in the amended morals and diminished poor rates of the parish. For the labouring man, the alehouse is a place of pure unmingled evil, where, while he is single, he squanders the money which should be laid up as a provision for marriage, or for old age; and where, if he frequent it after he is married, he commits the far heavier sin of spending, for his own selfish gratification, the earnings upon which the woman whom he has rendered dependent upon him, and the children to whom he has given birth, have the strongest of all claims.

Besides the diminution of alehouses, the public instruction of the children of

the poor is a most important *desideratum* and a most powerful means of improvement. At this time it is stated upon the best authority, that there are in London from one hundred and twenty to one hundred and thirty thousand children, between the ages of six and sixteen, without the means of education; and that from two to four thousand of these are hired out to beggars and employed in thieving. Throughout all the great cities and manufacturing counties of England, the case is the same as in the capital.

In Scotland, no sooner was a system of parochial education established, than a change began to operate. The roots of that huge overspreading evil were cut, and Scotland, which was then as lawless and barbarous as Ireland is now, became the most orderly part of the British dominions. The growth of manufactures and the abuse of distillation, are great counteracting principles, whose influence must be lamentably felt. These are common to both countries; and the striking advantages which Scotland possesses on the score of general morals, can be ascribed only to two causes, its parochial education and the management of its poor. By a table of the proportion of persons committed for criminal offences in different parts of Great Britain to the population of those parts, formed upon an average of the five years from 1805 to 1809, it appears that in London and Middlesex, it was 1 in 854; in the midland circuit, 1 in 5414; in Scotland 1 in 19,967. The difference can only be caused by the care with which the people are trained up in moral and religious habits.

To induce industry and frugality, the saving banks will be a powerful instrument. They will create these habits as well as encourage them. Opportunity may be expected to make economists, though not perhaps so often as it makes spendthrifts. They would give the community at large what would be most invaluable in society—provident habits. The pride of having money in the bank, and the advantage of the interest, would induce many persons to put in small sums, who would otherwise spend them. This has been found to be the practical effect; and a very slight knowledge of human nature will show, that when a man

gets on a little in the world, he is desirous of getting on a little farther. So certain indeed is the growth of provident habits, that it has been said, if a journeyman lays by the first five shillings, his fortune is made. Mr. William Hale, one of those persons who have bestowed most attention upon the state of the labouring classes, and exerted himself most for their benefit, declares that he never knew an instance of any one coming to the parish who had ever saved money.

Where the children of the indigent are properly educated, the public houses strictly superintended, and the best encouragement given to industry, by affording it ready and safe means of placing its earnings to account, it would seldom happen that those who are able and willing to work, would want employment. A remarkable example of the effect that one of these remedial means is by itself capable of producing, was stated in evidence to the Committee of the House of Commons. A school was established a few years ago at Hoxton, where there were a great number of very depraved poor; since that time, the moral improvement in the neighbourhood has been visible to all the inhabitants, and it is asserted that many instances have been pointed out of the most complete reformation in the morals and conduct of the parents, arising from the circumstance of the children having been introduced into the school; some of these children have actually taught their parents to read;—a fact, which if it be less picturesque than the story of the Grecian Daughter, is not less affecting.

Communications.

FOR THE PHILADELPHIA REGISTER.

DUELLING.

The late unfortunate and disgraceful duel between general Mason and Mr. M'Carty, has excited much interest and indignation. Such transactions are so frequent in this country, as to fix somewhat of a stain upon our national character. The writer of this article has been informed by an officer attached to the Mediterranean squadron, that this method of settling disputes was there almost peculiar to the

Americans, and was not only avoided by the British officers on that station, but was spoken of by them as an evidence of cruelty and ferocity in the American character. The gentleman was far from being of this opinion himself, but thought it arose from a more delicate sense of honour. He did not consider the reluctance of the British officers to proceed from any want of courage on their part, but from their being unaccustomed to it, and too apt to consider it as murder. He said that in mixing in society in Italy, the American gentlemen were frequently in company with Englishmen, and were sometimes *forced* by attacks upon their country, to resort to this method of defending its wounded reputation. He gave an instance to illustrate this assertion. A young American officer was on shore at the house of a gentleman who had a party composed of the residents of the place and some of the most eminent strangers in town, at his house. He was the only American present, and happened to stop for an instant near a young Englishman of a noble family, who was talking to some ladies and did not see him. One of the ladies having asked the Englishman if he had seen some poetry in a newspaper which she took up, he answered that he had, and that it was "Yankee trash." The American informed him that *he* was a Yankee, and walked away; but during the course of the evening he met the offender walking up and down the rooms with the gentleman of the house, and took an opportunity to jostle him, and then said, "You will take notice, Sir, I make you no apology." The Englishman not sending a challenge next day as he had expected, and being shortly after met by him in a public place, the American treated him "in a manner which no gentleman could bear;"—but the Englishman being determined not to fight, the matter ended, to the great triumph of the officer.

It is painful to be forced to believe that a statement of facts which is so

dishonourable to our gallant navy, can be true, but the source from which my information is derived, leaves me no room to doubt it.

It would be interesting to investigate the causes of this blot on our character; more especially as it is in opposition to that respect for the laws for which we are so remarkable.

P.

Statistics.

[FROM THE AMERICAN CENTINEL.]

AMERICAN TRADE TO CHINA.

IMPORTS

In American vessels, at the port of Canton, during the season of 1817-1818, say from 1st July, 1817, to 30th April, 1818.

5,700,000	Spanish Dollars
1,614	Piculs Gensang
2,698	do Quicksilver
453	do Turkey Opium
48	do Cochineal
11,353	do Lead
7,101	do Iron
2,576	do Copper
156	do Steel
13,795	do Sandal Wood
200	do Ebony
8,000	do Beetle Nut
1,100	do Brimstone
214	do Pepper
2	do Birds' Nests
4,183	Sea Otter Skins
9,425	Land ditto
15,062	Beaver ditto
57,112	Seal ditto
7,968	Musk Rat, Martin, Mink, &c. do.

The above are the principal articles of imports, besides which, woollens, manufactured cottons, linens, liquors, watches, pearls, &c. have come by different vessels, of which particular returns have not been made.

The picul is equal to 133 1-3 lbs. American weight.

EXPORTS

In American vessels, during the same period, say from 1st July, 1817, to 30th April, 1818.

To the United States.

2,000	chests Bohea
3,650	do Congo
1,504	do Campoy
16,978	do Souchong
11	do Pecco
29,617	do Hyson Skin
22,444	do Young Hyson
10,465	do Hyson
4,351	do Imperial and Gunpowder

91,019 chests of Tea.

1,119,000	pieces	Nankeens
200,150	do	Silks
556	piculs	Sewing Silk
8,294	do	Sugars
2,154	do	Cassia
12,078	do	China ware
1,805	do	Matts
303	do	Rhubarb
182	do	Vermillion
165	do	Tin
20	do	Tortoise Shell
6	do	Gambouge
50	do	China Root
105	do	Galingal

Besides sundry small articles.

To Europe.

8,765	chests	Congo
2,827	do	Campoy
4,070	do	Souchong
567	do	Pecco
590	do	Sunchi
2,174	do	Hyson Skin
660	do	Young Hyson
1,380	do	Hyson
75	do	Imperial and Gunpowder
150	do	Singlo
1,050	do	Tonkay

22,308 chests Tea.

181,000	pieces	Nankeens
247	piculs	Raw Silk
477	do	Cassia
350	do	Sugar Candy
506	do	Galingal
80	do	Rhubarb
21	do	Gambouge
125	do	Sweatmeats

Trade of Canada.

Three hundred and eighty-eight vessels arrived at the port of Quebec in the year 1818, from foreign ports, with merchandize valued at £772,373 14s. 6d. Halifax currency. Cleared, in the same time, for foreign ports, 409 vessels, in which, among other articles exported to Great Britain alone, were 1,865,831 staves and heads, 642,160 boards and planks, 24,251 casks ashes, 401,791 bushels of wheat, 12,967 do. barley, 49,637 do. peas, 16,164 do. flaxseed, 30,543 barrels flour, 3079 fox skins, 83,543 martin do., 3760 bear and cub, 57,432 beaver, 27897 muskrat, 9318 otter, 41,654 deer, 2036 wolf, 3 marmottes, 4557 hare, 118 seal, 8523 minx, 3872 fischer, 15225 raccoon, 3776 cased and open C, 366 wolverines, 111 lynx, 7 buffalo robes, 310 swan, 44 badgers, 2 loupseviens, 5 ground hogs, and 16 casks, 1 keg and 1 case of castorum.

N. York Ev. Post.

News.

The London Morning Chronicle of the 17th states, that a report is in circulation that a general simultaneous revolt has broken out in Spain; that the soldiers of the line sent to oppose the guerillas had made common cause with them, and were actually marching on Madrid, from whence the royal family had fled and taken refuge in the Escorial.

Torture and the Inquisition of Spain.

A decree at Madrid, the 19th November, issued by the grand inquisitor, who is also private confessor of Ferdinand, denounces the severest punishments against all persons who shall have in their possession any of the works it particularizes, or any foreign journals containing reflections upon the government and institutions of Spain. That these are not mere impotent threats, has been proved in the most dreadful manner. By virtue of this decree, and at the express command of the king, the torture has been inflicted on Calvo de Rosas, one of the heroic defenders of Saragossa. For five hours and twenty-six minutes this distinguished individual was exposed to the torments of the rack; his legs and arms were dislocated, and he continued for a lengthened period in a state of insensibility. The queen is said to have been deeply affected by this inhuman treatment, and to have implored Ferdinand in behalf of Rosas, but the bloodthirsty monster was inexorable. Social intercourse is at an end in Spain. Individuals are arrested, and put to the torture, on the most groundless suspicion; the inquisitor general engrosses the whole power of the kingdom.

Lord Ellenborough, chief justice of England, died on the 13th December.

Sir Philip Francis, the supposed author of Junius, departed this life on the 23d December last, in the 79th year of his age. Papers and documents are said to have been found which conclusively prove that Sir Philip Francis was the author of Junius.

The Queen of Spain died at Madrid, on the 2d January, of a convulsive fit.

Public Affairs.

Fifteenth Congress.

SECOND SESSION.

SENATE.

Feb. 9.—The Senate resumed the consideration of the motion yesterday submitted by Mr. Morrill, to request the President to dismiss certain officers from his service; it was, after some discussion withdrawn by the mover, who substituted the following, which was agreed to:

Resolved, That the committee on the judiciary be instructed to inquire into the expediency of providing by law for the punishment of all persons concerned in duelling within the District of Columbia.

Feb. 11.—The Senate resumed the consideration of the bill for the erection of an equestrian statue of the late general George Washington, in the capital square.

Mr. Otis moved to postpone the bill to the 5th day of March, (to reject it) which motion was decided in the negative—Yeas 15—Nays 18.

On motion of Mr. Daggett, the bill was amended, by adding a proviso, that, if the President should find that the monument would cost more than 150,000 dollars, the sum appropriated, he should not proceed to execute the act, but make a report of the estimated cost to the next session of Congress.

The question was then taken on ordering the bill, as amended, to be engrossed and read a third time, and decided affirmatively—Yeas 23—Nays 14.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

Feb. 8.—The following message received from the President of the United States on Saturday last, was read, and with the documents accompanying it, referred to the committee of ways and means.

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States.

I transmit to Congress, for their consideration, applications which have been received from the minister resident of Prussia, and from the senates of the free and Hanseatic cities of Hamburg and Bremen, the object of which is that the advantages secured by the act of Congress of the 20th April last, to the vessels and merchandize of the Netherlands, should be extended to those of Prussia, Hamburg, and Bremen. It will appear from these documents that the vessels of the United States, and the merchandize laden in them, are, in the ports of those governments, respectively, entitled to the same advantages in respect to imports and duties as those of the

native subjects of the countries themselves. The principle of reciprocity appears to entitle them to the return of the same favour on the part of the United States; and I recommend it to Congress, that provision to that effect may be made.

JAMES MONROE.

The House then resolved itself into a committee of the whole, Mr. Bassett in the chair, on the general appropriation bill for 1819.

The appropriation contained in the bill, of 250,000 dollars for the payment of monies due and becoming due on existing contracts for completing the road from Cumberland, in Maryland, to the state of Ohio, with the amendment of Mr. Clay to add an appropriation of 285,000 dollars for the completion of said road, gave rise to much debate.

Mr. Smith of Md. Mr. Clay, Mr. Pindall, Mr. Beecher, and Mr. Pitkin, spoke in favour of the appropriation; Mr. Johnson of Va. against any appropriation for this object; Mr. Baldwin against the latter appropriation, and Mr. Tallmadge against the appropriation, on the ground of imputed misapplication of the money.

Mr. Johnson, of Va. moved to strike out of the bill the clause appropriating 250,000 dollars for present contracts; which motion was negatived.

Mr. Clay moved to insert an additional appropriation of 285,000 dollars for the completion of the road; which was agreed to by the following vote—

For the additional appropriation	66
Against it	61

The committee then proceeded to the consideration of the bill from the Senate, referred to the same committee, to increase the salaries of certain officers of the government—(to give the heads of departments, salaries of 6000 dollars each; the postmaster-general 4000, and the attorney-general 3,500 dollars.)

Mr. Hopkinson moved to amend this bill, so as to give to the chief justice of the United States 5000 dollars per annum, and to the circuit judges 4,500 dollars per annum.

After debate, this motion was agreed to, 69 to 57.

Mr. Whitman moved an amendment to increase the salaries of the two assistant postmasters general from 1,800 to 2,500 dollars per annum—which was negatived.

Mr. Rich moved to reduce the proposed salaries of the heads of departments from 6000 to 5500—which motion was negatived by a considerable majority.

When the committee was about to rise, Mr. Clay made a short speech, declaring it had been his intention to have renewed his proposition for acknowledging the independence of South America, but that indisposition and the press of business before the House would prevent him at this time. He had been very anxious to discuss the reasons assigned in the message of the President, against recognising our sister republic, and to remark on the

grounds taken by the secretary of state, in a paper lately transmitted to the House. Should it be necessary, however, at the next session, he pledged himself to renew the subject.

The committee rose, and the House adjourned.

Feb. 13.—The resolution to reduce the army was considered, and on motion of Mr. Holmes, who stated the short time remaining of the session as his reason, it was laid on the table.

Feb. 15.—The house having again resolved itself into a committee of the whole, Mr. Smith of Md. in the chair, on the bill to authorize the people of the Missouri territory to form a constitution and state government, and for the admission of the same into the Union:

The question being on the proposition of Mr. Tallmadge, to amend the bill by adding to it the following proviso:

"And provided, That the further introduction of slavery or involuntary servitude, be prohibited, except for the punishment of crimes whereof the party shall have been fully convicted; and that all children born within the said state, after the admission thereof into the Union, shall be free at the age of twenty-five years."

The debate which commenced on Saturday, was to-day resumed on this proposition; which was supported by Messrs. Taylor, Mills, Livermore and Fuller, and opposed by Messrs. Barbour, Pindall, Clay and Holmes.

This debate, which was quite interesting, involved two questions; one of right, the other of expediency. Both were supported by the advocates of the amendment, and generally opposed by its opponents. On the one hand, it was contended that Congress had no right to prescribe to any state the details of its government, any further than that it should be republican in its form; that such a power would be nugatory, if exercised, since, once admitted into the Union, the people of any state have the unquestioned right to amend their constitution of government, &c.

On the other hand, it was as strongly contended, that Congress had the right to annex conditions to the admission of any new state into the Union; that slavery was incompatible with our republican institutions, &c.

We have no idea of giving any thing like a view of the debate in this hasty account of the proceedings.

Besides the above gentlemen, Mr. Harrison and Mr. Hendricks spoke on points, incidentally introduced into the debate.

The question being put, on the motion of Mr. Tallmadge to amend the bill, the vote was—

For the amendment	79
Against it	67
So the amendment was agreed to.	

The house then proceeded in the further consideration and maturing of the provisions of the bill—which occupied the house until the usual hour of adjournment.

[FROM THE NATIONAL INTELLIGENCER.]

We have already noticed the proceedings in the Senate on the subject of the Washington Monument. It is proper to state, that the motion made by Mr. Otis to *reject* the bill for the erection of the equestrian statue, was accompanied by a notice of his intention to substitute a proposition in the following words. There being now in force two resolutions of Congress, Mr. Otis said, one for a statue and one for a monument; and no correct information as to the relative expense and means of executing either, he was of opinion, that, by limiting the discretion of the President to one object, and to a precise sum, a year might be lost, at the expiration of which, Congress would be destitute of estimates and plans that would, if obtained, facilitate further proceedings.

THE PROPOSED SUBSTITUTE.

"And be it further enacted, That if the President of the United States shall ascertain, that the sum hereby appropriated shall not be sufficient to pay the expense of procuring said statue, conformably to said resolutions, he shall be, and hereby is, authorized and requested to procure suitable plans or models of an equestrian statue, and of a marble monument, with appropriate emblems and inscriptions, in honour of General George Washington, conformably to the several resolutions of Congress now in force, together with estimates of their respective cost, and such other information respecting the best means of causing the same to be executed and erected, as it may be in his power to obtain, and to transmit the result of his inquiries to Congress at their next session."

Pennsylvania Legislature

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

Feb. 8.—The committee of the whole agreed to the bill directing mortgages to be recorded within thirty days after they are executed.

Feb. 10.—The bills: a supplement to the act incorporating two companies for making a turnpike road from Pittsburg, through Butler and Mercer, to Meadville: to incorporate a company for making a turnpike road, from the thirtieth mile-stone of the Easton and Wilkesbarre turnpike, in a northwesterly direction through Liggett's gap in the Lackawanock mountain to the Coshecton and Great Bend turnpike, at or near Ithamor Mott's: allowing mileage to jurors: regulating the size of the bushel used for measuring lime in certain counties: incorporating the Philadelphia Saving Fund Society—were severally read a third time and passed.

The following law has passed both Houses of the Legislature of this state, and been approved by the governor:

An Act to prevent the imprisonment of Females for debt.

Sect. 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the commonwealth of Pennsylvania in general assembly met, and it is hereby enacted by the authority of the same,* That no female shall be arrested or imprisoned for or by reason of any debt contracted after the passing of this act.
Approved—Feb. 8th, 1819.

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An act relative to Escheated Estates.

SECT. 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, in General Assembly met, and it is hereby enacted by the authority of the same,* That any person who hath died or shall die intestate, leaving a wife or husband and no heir or other known kindred, and being seized or possessed at the time of his or her death of real or personal estate, the same shall vest in and be enjoyed by such surviving wife or husband, and he or she shall hold the same for such estate as the decedent had or held therein.

Approved—January 21, 1819.

Miscellany.

From the New York Commercial Advertiser.

An exhortation to Planters, Botanists, and the people at large, in favour of introducing the Tea-Plant in the United States. In two letters from C. Rafinesque, esq. to Samuel L. Mitchill.

LETTER I.

ON THE INTRODUCTION AND CULTURE OF THE
TEA-PLANT.

*Read before the Lyceum of Natural History,
February 8, 1819.*

DEAR SIR—The scarcity of specie is at this moment felt and deplored by all the community. I shall not pretend to investigate all the causes of this rarity in the United States, nor to enumerate all the remedies which it requires, but any body in the least acquainted with the dictates of common sense and the true principles of public economy, will allow that one of the principal causes lays in the excessive importations of the Chinese productions, which must be paid for principally in silver coin; and that a gradual diminution of such imports would soon restore a more beneficial balance of trade. Among the articles imported from China tea stands foremost: more than twelve millions of silver dollars are annually carried there to pay for the mere consumption in the United States of

that useless article. But when bad habits are incorporated with our manners, it is almost impossible to eradicate them: I shall not waste my time therefore in dissuading our citizens from the use of that pernicious leaf, nor endeavour to repeat over and over, that many of our indigenous plants, such as the dahoon or yapoon of the southern states (ilex capine,) or the mint, the sage, &c. would afford pleasant and wholesome substitutes; but I shall insinuate the propriety of cultivating the tea-shrub in the United States, where it will grow as well as in China; acquiring thereby a valuable new article for agriculture, and lessening our dependance on China for its supply. I shall merely claim the pleasure of having thrown the first hint on the subject, and shall call upon you as a patriotic citizen to enforce the practicability and utility of this proposal, by all the possible analogies and authorities; and to convince the public, the farmers, and particularly those who complain of the scarcity of silver, of the truth of my statements, dispelling the fears and doubts of those who never thought any thing like possible, or who may deplore a small decrease of our China trade and public revenue, as the evident consequences; and promoting an endeavour of our enlightened citizens, our agricultural and learned societies, and our state legislatures to undertake the needful experiments, and foster the first steps of the first American tea-planters.

The following facts may serve as the base of such labours.

1st. That two shrubs which produce the green and black tea, grow on the eastern shore of the eastern continent, as far north as Japan, Corea, and the neighbourhood of Tartary, even in places where streams of water freeze in the winter, in the same latitudes and climates as the United States; they will therefore succeed in our southern and middle states.

2. They have been transplanted successfully from China to Brazils, where they thrive, although the climate is too warm.—They can therefore bear transplantation like any other hardy shrub, in pots, layers, or cuttings.

3. Both shrubs are hardy, they have deciduous leaves falling in the autumn, and they bear buds in winter, the sure characteristic of trees and shrubs natives of cold climates: other species are evergreens.

4. Their cultivation is very easy, they grow in hedges, orchards, gardens, tea-yards, &c.; they require no other soil nor care than the mulberry-tree, to which they are associated in China.

5. The only troublesome process is the gathering of the leaves; but may be performed by children, women, and disabled individuals; the drying in pans and stoves is quite easy and expeditious.

6. The transplantation of those shrubs in the United States will require very little care; but an essential point will be to endea-

your to get the living shrubs or perfect seeds from the northernmost parts of China, or from Japan through Batavia, in order to ensure their success: if they should be taken from the neighbourhood of Canton, the difference in the climate will be too great.

C. S. RAFINESQUE, Botanist.
Philadelphia, 5th Feb. 1819.

LETTER II.

ON THE SEVERAL SPECIES OF TEA.

Their discriminating characters, and their places of growth.

I take the liberty to state some additional thoughts on the proposed introduction of the tea-shrubs in the United States.

There are five botanical species of tea known at present; two were known to Linnæus, but not properly distinguished until Lettsom gave good figures of both in his memoirs on tea; and three have been described by Lourciro. As only one of those five species will be worth introducing in the United States, it may be needful to distinguish it accurately from all others. It is the green tea shrub, or *thea viridis* of Linnæus, which will be known by the following characters: leaves senile, flowers axillary, solitary, calix five lobed, corolla, with six to nine unequal petals, style trifid, divisions spreading. This species growing in the most northern climates, and affording the most valuable teas, claims, of course, a decided preference over the following.

2. The black tea-shrub, or *thea bohea* of Linnæus, has leaves petiolate, flowers axillary ternate, calix five lobed, petals six to nine unequal, style tripartite, divisions upright. It grows also in cold climates; but as it affords the least valuable tea, it must not claim attention in the first instance.

3. The souchong tea-shrub, or *thea can-tonensis* of Lourciro, has the flowers terminal and solitary, calix five or six lobed, corolla with seven to nine petals. This species appears to be confined to the southern provinces of China, and could not succeed therefore in the United States.

4. The cochinchina tea-shrub, or *thea cochinchinensis* of Lourciro, has the flowers terminal and solitary, calix three lobed, corolla five petals. As it is a native of a warm climate, it cannot succeed in the United States.

5. The oil seed tea-shrub, or *thea olcifera* of Lourciro, has the peduncles axillary and triflore, the calix six lobed, and six petals. The seeds of all the tea-shrubs afford oil; but this species is cultivated near Canton, for the express purpose of raising an oil of inferior quality, used for lamps. It ought not to claim any premature attention, as it does not appear to produce a good tea, and is a native of a southern climate.

Those to whom will be entrusted the collection and transplantation of the green tea shrubs, roots, cuttings and seeds, must be well acquainted with those several species,

to prevent any possibility of mistaking one for another, and they must be well on their guard against the usual tricks of the Chinese. The success is not doubtful, if a trusty Chinese agent, a planter or a gardener for instance, is sent into the country as far north as possible, to bring down to Canton, by water, a certain number of shrubs in pots and in full blossom. It is essential to ask them in blossom, in order to ascertain the genus and species, since the leaves of all the species are nearly alike, and many other shrubs have similar leaves; this will serve at the same time to evade suspicions, as they will be considered then as asked merely for the beauty of the blossoms, like so many shrubs and plants which already have been exported from China in pots for their beauty. By paying well those gardeners they will do any thing for you. I apprehend more difficulties from the European and American factories in Canton, than from the natives or the government: but a prudent and sagacious man will easily obviate and overcome them. The usual short passages of American vessels from China, will insure their safe arrival in the United States: They will require no further care on board than other plants in pots, and an occasional watering. The man or men who will succeed in their safe exportation from China, and importation in the United States, will deserve and acquire the title of benefactors of their country.

It may also be tried to get them from Batavia, by the Dutch ships trading to Japan.

In Rempfer, Thunberg, Miller, Lettsom, &c. may be seen all that relates to the cultivation and preparation of the different qualities of teas: it is well known, that the best qualities are made with the youngest buds and leaves of the green tea shrubs.

C. S. RAFINESQUE, Botanist.
Philadelphia, 7th Feb. 1819.

P. S. I beg leave to suggest the propriety of recommending the formation of a society for the naturalization of tea in the United States, as the best possible mean of attaining that object:—Collective exertions have generally a better chance of success than individual zeal.

[FROM THE BOSTON GAZETTE.]

THE CASUAL REMARKER.

There is no part of the conduct of mankind in which there have been more mistakes committed, than in their attempts to enforce the reformation of wrong-doers, and prevent the recurrence of faults. Parents and legislators, masters and sovereigns, alike err in the application of punishment. I would not maintain that severity is never necessary, but I affirm there are but few

cases in which it is productive of good. Stubbornness is the fruit harsh treatment commonly produces in noble dispositions, and unrelenting revenge the pernicious seed it sows in the hot beds of warm tempers. How many are the murders, which owe their perpetration to the unjustifiable or imprudent severity practised in the first instance by the victims? How lamentable, even when not fatal, have been the effects of vengeance, when fortune presented to exasperated minds the means of retaliation? Numerous as are the evil propensities of fallen humanity, bad as mankind often are, difficult as confessedly it is to find proper correctives, punishment is yet considered by many wise men "even for children, as the clumsiest and worst means of reformation." The good sense of the present age has almost entirely banished flogging from the army, the navy, the criminal code and the school room; the most strict discipline may be maintained without resorting to this baneful and degrading species of punishment; and, notwithstanding the opinions and examples of our forefathers, it has been fairly proved at the present day, that corporal chastisement neither invigorates the intellect nor improves the heart of a child. If the use of the rod is at any time proper, it must indeed be a Solomon that can save any one by its application. In most hands it is the instrument of passion, of resentment, of caprice, and oftener spoils the whipper and the whipt, than does good to either. Few persons know how to inflict punishment even where it is merited, and the improper manner in which it is executed, increases the evils of its natural tendency. It should always appear when resorted to, a matter of necessity—reasonable—proportioned to the offence—calmly inflicted and without anger—imposed with regret and reluctance, and for the sole purpose of reformation; it should be uniform, certain, and prompt. In the numerous relations of mankind to each other, it not unfrequently occurs that we think it is a duty to punish some unfortunate individual, who in the intercourse of life happens to offend us; an old proverb tells us revenge is sweet, and we are too fond of resorting to this delicious and dangerous drug to remove the pressure we feel on our hearts. At such times,

let us call to our consideration these principles, and refrain from deeds which produce only repentance. We should reflect, that the moment a person begins to think we are hostile to him, that we have disgraced him, that

"The world is not his friend nor the world's law,"

he either commences direct hostilities against us, or sinking under the contest abandons himself to despair; he becomes a useless or a hurtful member of the community. Attempts to reclaim him by severity are worse than unavailing. We are told, by a sensible writer, "you might as well attempt to stop the progress of contagion, by punishing all who are affected by the baneful principles of the air, as to reform men by punishment alone." The experiment has been made more than a thousand times without success. Let us abandon the practice, and try the milder methods of clemency and encouragement. There is a pride in human nature, which yields to kindness what it refuses to compulsion. Men are easily led to their duty, but revolt at being driven to it. "A child (says the Eastern proverb) may lead the elephant by a single hair." Try the effect, says an amiable author, of good will and hope upon the man who has wrapped himself in the covering of a reckless and stubborn enmity or despair, and you will see verified the old apologue of the sun, the wind and the traveller. "His heart will open like the flower that closes at night and expands its petals to the morning sun. The better parts of his nature will be put forth like the tendrils of the sea-anemone, when it feels the first wave of the returning tide upon its rock."

SOURCE OF THE GANGES.

The following very interesting article is from a Calcutta paper of Aug. 26.

ASIATIC SOCIETY.—On Monday evening, the 10th, a meeting of the Asiatic Society was held at Chouringhee; the marquis of Hastings, president, in the chair.

On this occasion the journal of a survey to the heads of the rivers Ganges and Jumna, by captain Hodgson, was

presented by the president. Captain Webb's survey in 1808, having extended from the Doon Valley to Cajane, near *Reital*, captain Hodgson commences his scientific and interesting labours from the latter place, which by a series of observations he found to be in latitude $30^{\circ} 48' 28''$ N. The village of *Reital*, consists of about thirty-five houses, which are built of wood, and are two and three stories high. He left *Reital*, on the 21st of May, 1817. On the 31st he descended to the bed of the river, and saw the Ganges issue from under a very low arch at the foot of the grand snow bed. The river was bounded to the right and left by high rocks and snow, but in front near the debouche, the mass of snow was perfectly perpendicular, and from the bed of the stream to the summit, the thickness was estimated at little less than 300 feet of solid frozen snow, probably the accumulation of ages, as it was in layers of several feet thick, each seemingly the remains of a separate year. From the brow of this curious wall of snow, and immediately above the outlet of the stream, large and hoary icicles depended. The Gaugoutri Brahmin, who accompanied captain Hodgson, and who was an illiterate mountaineer, observed that he thought these icicles must be *Mahaden's hair*, from whence, as he understood, it is written in the Shaster, the Ganges flows. Captain Hodgson thinks that the appellation of Cow's Mouth is aptly given to this extraordinary debouche. The height of the arch of snow is only sufficient to let the stream flow under it. Blocks of snow were falling on all sides, and there was little time to do more than to measure the size of the stream; the main breadth was 27 feet, the greatest depth about 18 inches, and the shallowest part 9 or 10 inches. Captain Hodgson believes this to be the *first appearance in day-light* of the celebrated Ganges! Zealous in the prosecution of his inquiries, he attempted to proceed forwards, but was obliged to return, having frequently sunk in the snow, one time up to his neck, and there being evident marks of hollows beneath.

The height of the halting place near which the Ganges issues from under the great snow bed, is calculated to be 12,914 feet above the sea, and the height of a peak of the Himalaya, called St. George

by captain Hodgson, is estimated to be 22,210 feet above the surface of the sea.

Captain Hodgson, in his account of the course of the river Jumna, observes that at Jumnoutri, the snow which covers and conceals the stream is about sixty yards wide, and is bounded to the right and left by mural precipices of granite; it is forty and a half feet thick, and has fallen from the precipices above. He was able to measure the thickness of the bed of snow over the stream very exactly, by means of a plumb line, let down through one of the holes in it, which are caused by the stream of a great number of boiling springs at the border of the Jumna. —The thickness was 40 feet $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The head of the Jumna is on the southwest side of the grand Himalaya ridge, differing from the Ganges, inasmuch as that river has the upper part of its course within the Himalaya, flowing from the southeast to the north of west, and it is only from Sookie, when it pierces through the Himalaya, that it resumes a course of about south 20 west. The mean latitude of the hot springs of Jumnoutri appears to be $30, 58$. Captain Hodgson made this observation April 21, 1811.

Growth of Tea in France.

The Moniteur has the following:—
“This precious herb, first introduced into France by a Russian, in 1814, promises to become naturalized amongst us. There are already three hundred stocks, which it is easy to multiply. This tea has received the approbation of the king's physicians, and the first naturalists in France. The plants are to be sold by subscription.”

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